

Reaction Mechanism





Dr. Biswajit Panda

Department of Chemistry City College, Kolkata-700009 Date: 28.09.2020

Types of Organic Reactions

1. Addition Reactions: $A + B \rightarrow C$

2. Elimination Reactions: D → E + F

3. Substitution Reactions: G-H + $I \xrightarrow{\ominus}$ G-I + $H \xrightarrow{\ominus}$

$$\begin{array}{c} O & O \\ HO & O \\ O & O \\ O & O \\ A-ketoglutarate \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} O & O \\ SCoA \\ SCoA \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} O \\ O \\ SCoA \\ SCoA \end{array}$$

Types of Organic Reactions

4. Rearrangements: J → K

How do these reactions occur? Why do these reactions occur?

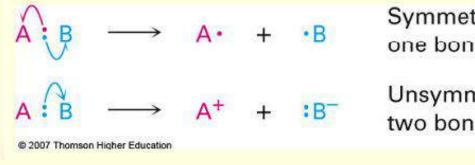
We must explain how electrons are exchanged during the formation of new bonds and breaking of old bonds.

How Reactions Occur

Symmetrical Bond Making/Breaking (homolytic process)

VS

Unsymmetrical Bond Making/Breaking (heterolytic process) - POLAR Reactions



Symmetrical bond-breaking (radical): one bonding electron stays with each product.

Unsymmetrical bond-breaking (polar): two bonding electrons stay with one product.

$$A \cdot + B \longrightarrow A : B$$

$$A \cdot B \longrightarrow A : B$$

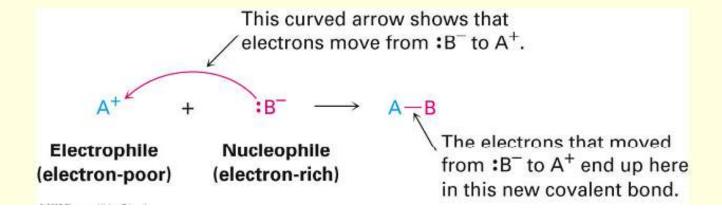
Symmetrical bond-making (radical): one bonding electron is donated by each reactant.

Unsymmetrical bond-making (polar): two bonding electrons are donated by one reactant.

Indicating Electron Movement in Reaction Mechanisms

- Curved arrows indicate breaking and forming of bonds
- Arrowheads with a "half" head ("fish-hook") indicate homolytic and homogenic steps (called 'radical processes')
- Arrowheads with a complete head indicate heterolytic and heterogenic steps (called 'polar processes')

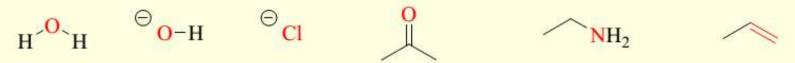




Polar Reactions

Opposite charges attract

 Nucleophiles (electron rich sites, seek nucleus) - have lone pair of electrons or C=C bond



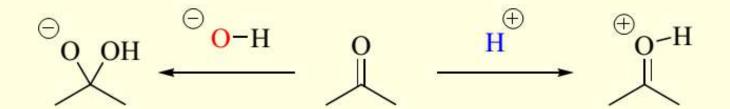
 Electrophiles (electron poor sites, seek electrons) - have formal positive charge or partial positive charge via bond dipole

$$H^{\oplus}$$
 C_{Br}
 C_{Br}

Nucleophiles are synonymous with Lewis Bases, Electrophiles are synonymous with Lewis Acids, Polar reactions are Lewis Acid-Base reactions.

Nucleophiles and Electrophiles

Note that compounds can be nucleophilic and electrophilic. You must look at specific atoms and what the compound is reacting with to determine how it will react:



Judging relative 'strengths' of Nuc and E+

Strong Nuc

less stable anion
more stable anion
lone pair less EN atom
lone pair more EN atom
C=C
Weak Nuc

Strong E+

less stable cation
more stable cation
neutral atom incomplete octet
large partial positive atom
small partial positive atom

Weak E+

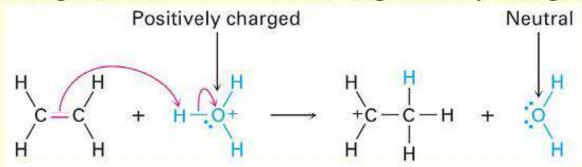
Use of curved arrows to show electron movement in bond making and bond breaking process. For polar reactions, electrons move as a pair. Note that charges must also balance.

The arrow goes from the nucleophilic reaction site to the electrophilic reaction site

The nucleophilic site can be neutral or negatively charged

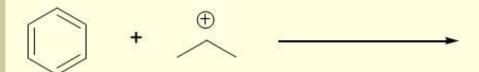
Negatively charged Neutral
$$CH_3 - \overset{\circ}{\text{O}}: + \overset{\circ}{\text{H}} - \overset{\circ}{\text{Br}}: \longrightarrow CH_3 - \overset{\circ}{\text{O}}: + \overset{\circ}{\text{Br}}:$$

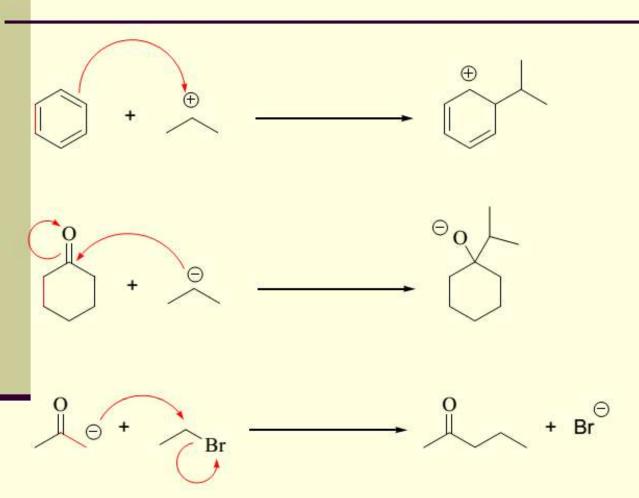
The electrophilic site can be neutral or positively charged



The octet rule must be followed

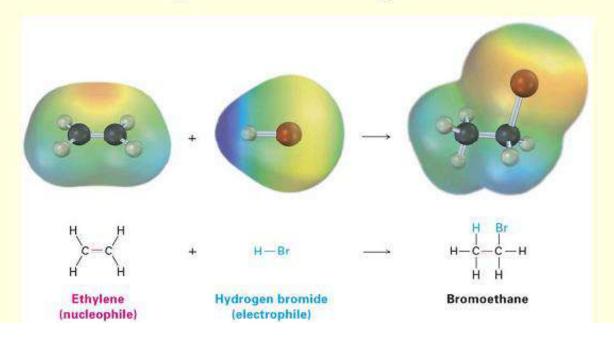
(never have +2 or -2 charge on a single atom)





An Example of a Polar Reaction: Addition of HBr to Ethylene

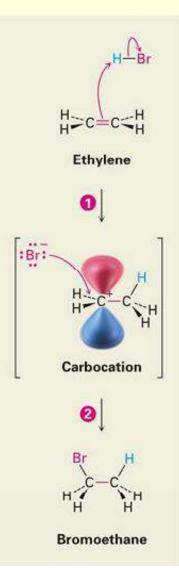
- HBr adds to the π part of C-C double bond
- The π bond is electron-rich, allowing it to function as a nucleophile
- H-Br is electron deficient at the H since Br is much more electronegative, making HBr an electrophile

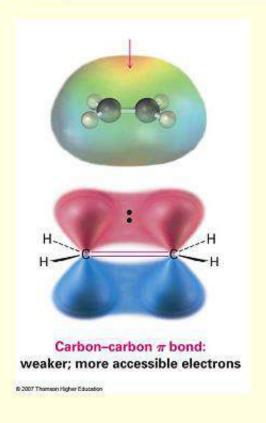


Mechanism of Addition of HBr to Ethylene

A hydrogen atom on the electrophile HBr is attacked by π electrons from the nucleophilic double bond, forming a new C-H bond. This leaves the other carbon atom with a + charge and a vacant p orbital. Simultaneously, two electrons from the H-Br bond move onto bromine, giving bromide anion.

Bromide ion donates an electron pair to the positively charged carbon atom, forming a C-Br bond and yielding the neutral addition product.





Why Reactions Occur

All organic reactions we will study will reach equilibrium that favors the more stable side. In most cases, these will be reaction products as written from left to right (note, however, sometimes you must predict which side is favored as in acid-base reactions).

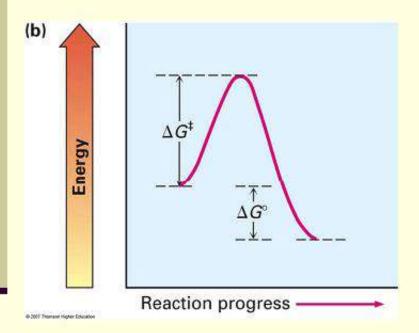
$$\Delta G^{o} = -RT \ln K_{eq} = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

If Keq > 1, energy is released to the surroundings (exergonic reaction, negative value of ΔG^o , reaction favored)

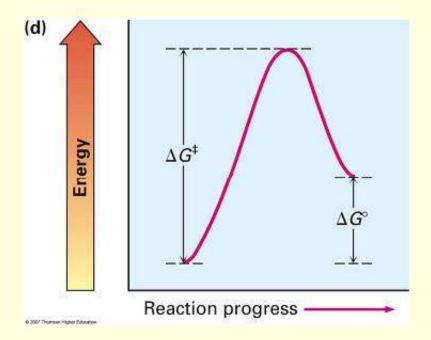
If Keq < 1, energy is absorbed from the surroundings (endergonic reaction, positive value of ΔG^o , reaction not favored)

Energy changes in a reaction are illustrated by Energy Diagrams

One Step Reactions:

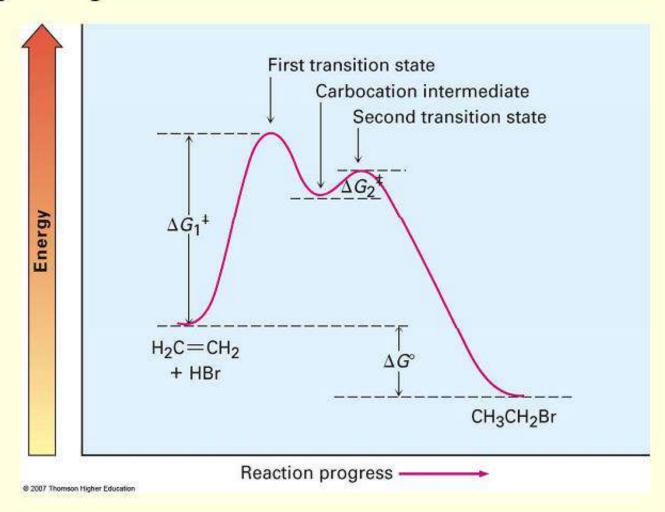


Exergonic (- Δ G) (thermo favored)

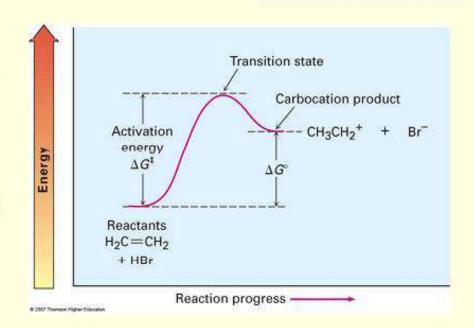


Endergonic (+ Δ G) (thermo not favored)

Multiple Step Reactions:



- The highest energy point in a reaction step is called the transition state
- The energy needed to go from reactant to transition state is the activation energy (ΔG‡)



$$\begin{bmatrix} & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\$$

- If a reaction occurs in more than one step, it must involve species that are neither the reactant nor the final product
- These are called reaction intermediates or simply "intermediates"
- Each step has its own free energy of activation
- The complete diagram for the reaction shows the free energy changes associated with an intermediate

$$\begin{array}{c} H \\ H \\ C = C \\ H \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} H \\ H \\ H \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c$$

